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## Lecture 2 (part 1)

Topics covered:  
Instruction Set Architecture



## Execution of an instruction

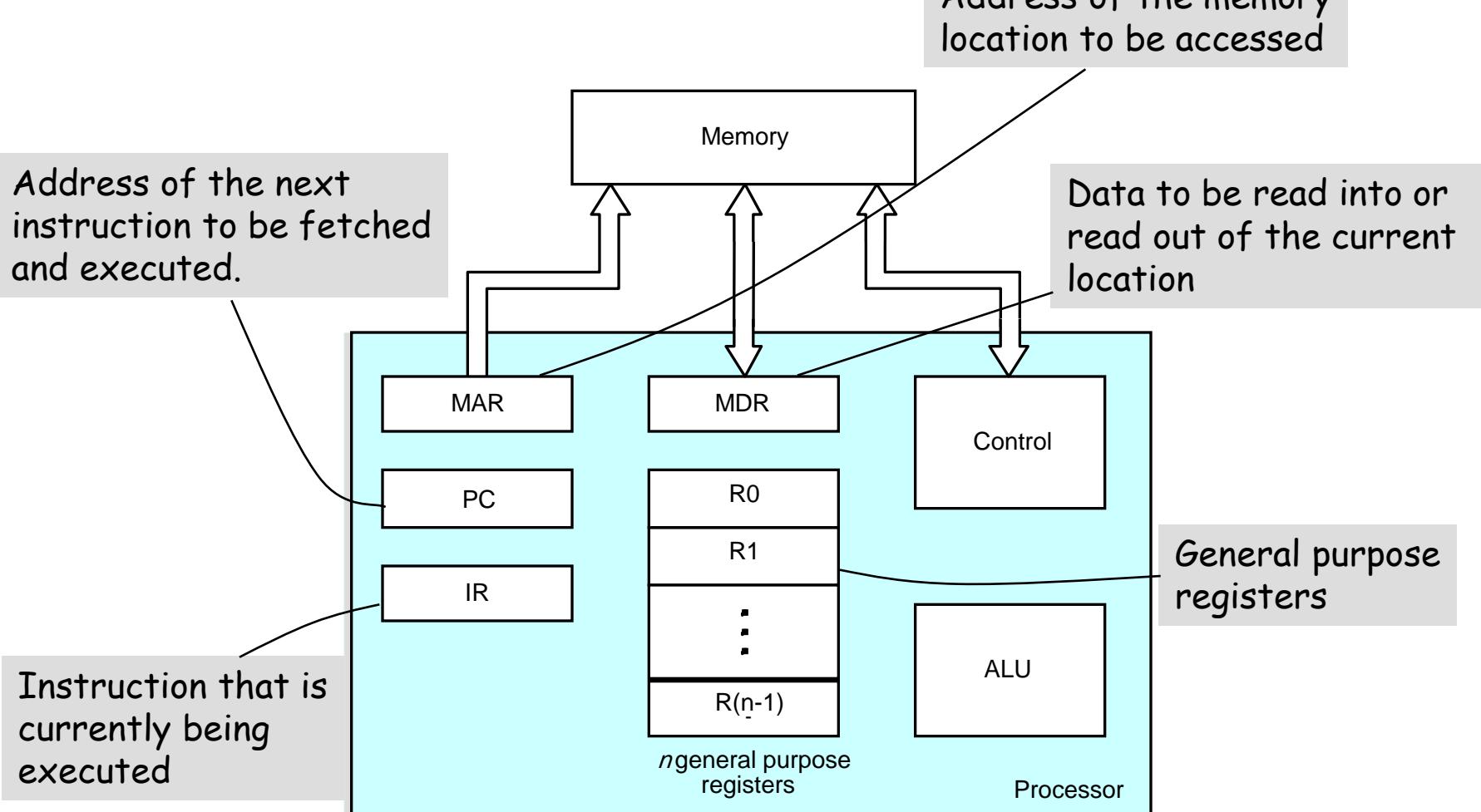
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- Recall the steps involved in the execution of an instruction by a processor:
  - ◆ Fetch an instruction from the memory.
  - ◆ Fetch the operands.
  - ◆ Execute the instruction.
  - ◆ Store the results.
- Several issues:
  - ◆ Where is the address of the memory location from which the present instruction is to be fetched?
  - ◆ Where is the present instruction stored while it is executed?
  - ◆ Where and what is the address of the memory location from which the data is fetched?
  - ◆ .....
- Basic processor architecture has several registers to assist in the execution of the instructions.

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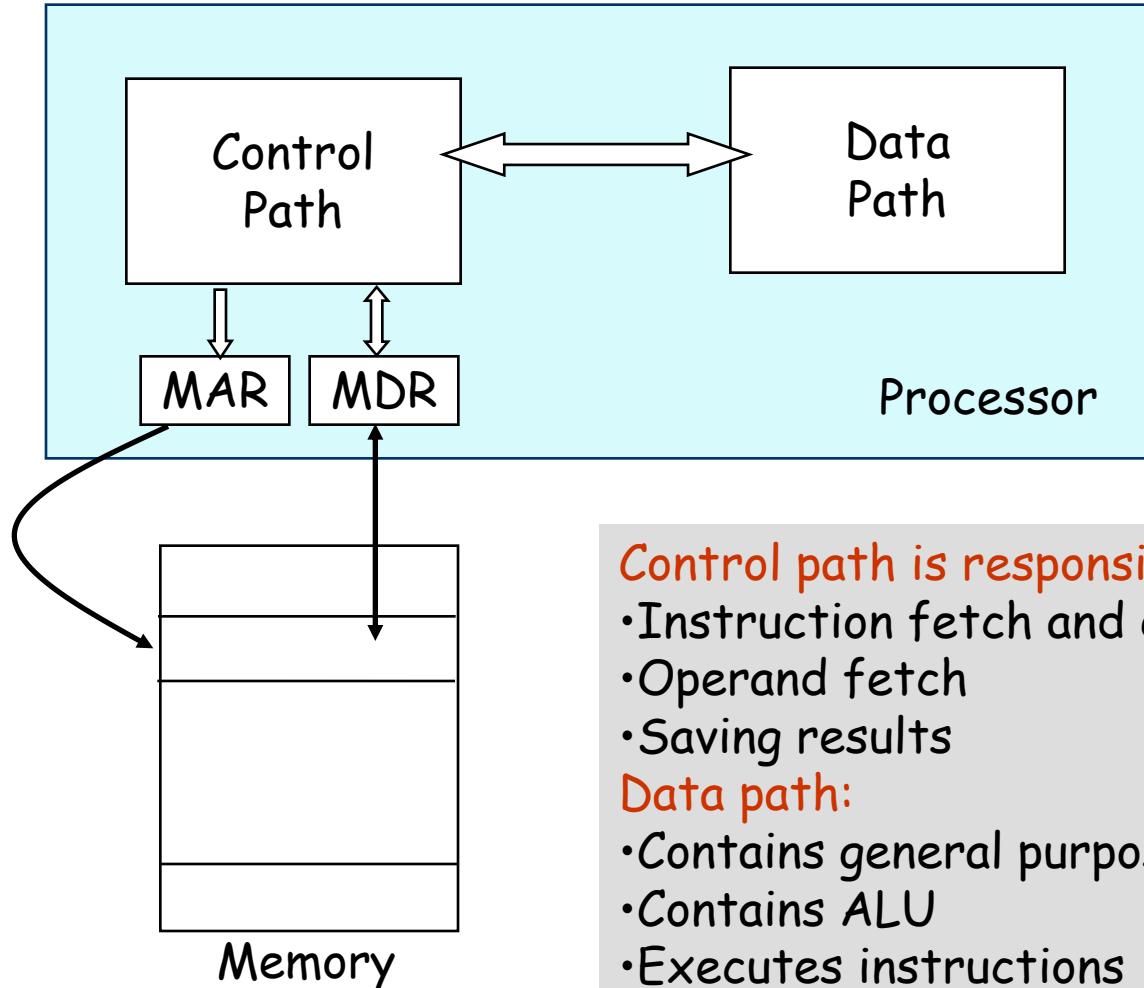


# Basic processor architecture





## Basic processor architecture (contd..)



**Control path is responsible for:**

- Instruction fetch and execution sequencing
- Operand fetch
- Saving results

**Data path:**

- Contains general purpose registers
- Contains ALU
- Executes instructions



## Registers in the control path

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- **Instruction Register (IR):**
  - ◆ Instruction that is currently being executed.
- **Program Counter (PC):**
  - ◆ Address of the next instruction to be fetched and executed.
- **Memory Address Register (MAR):**
  - ◆ Address of the memory location to be accessed.
- **Memory Data Register (MDR):**
  - ◆ Data to be read into or read out of the current memory location, whose address is in the Memory Address Register (MAR).



## Fetch/Execute cycle

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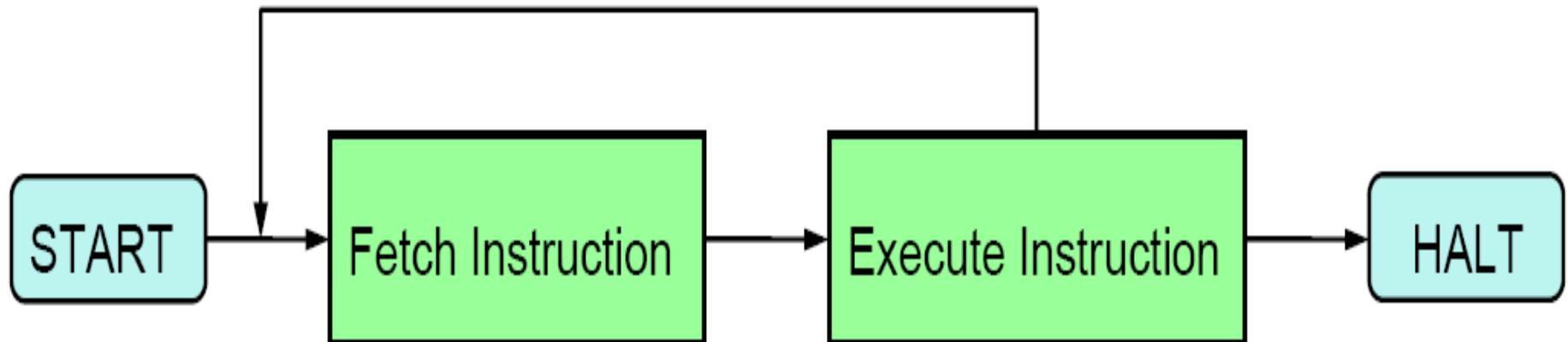
- Execution of an instruction takes place in two phases:
  - ◆ Instruction **fetch**.
  - ◆ Instruction **execute**.
- Instruction fetch:
  - ◆ Fetch the instruction from the **memory** location whose **address** is in the Program Counter (**PC**).
  - ◆ Place the **instruction** in the Instruction Register (**IR**).
- Instruction execute:
  - ◆ **Instruction** in the **IR** is examined (**decoded**) to determine which **operation** is to be performed.
  - ◆ Fetch the **operands** from the **memory** or **registers**.
  - ◆ **Execute** the **operation**.
  - ◆ **Store** the **results** in the destination **location**.
- Basic fetch/execute cycle repeats indefinitely.



## Instruction Execution

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### □ Basic instruction cycle





## Memory organization

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- Recall:
  - ◆ Information is stored in the memory as a **collection of bits**.
  - ◆ Collection of bits are stored or retrieved simultaneously is called a **word**.
  - ◆ Number of bits in a word is called **word length**.
  - ◆ Word length can be **16** to **64** bits.
- Another collection which is more basic than a word:
  - ◆ Collection of 8 bits known as a "**byte**"
- Bytes are grouped into words, word length can also be expressed as a number of bytes instead of the number of bits:
  - ◆ **Word length of 16 bits**, is equivalent to word length of **2 bytes**.
- Words may be **2 bytes** (older architectures), **4 bytes** (current architectures), or **8+ bytes** (modern architectures).



## Memory organization (contd..)

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- Accessing the memory to obtain information requires specifying the “**address**” of the memory location.
- Recall that a **memory** has a sequence of bits:
  - ◆ Assigning addresses to each bit is impractical and unnecessary.
  - ◆ Typically, **addresses** are assigned to a **single byte**.
  - ◆ “**Byte addressable memory**”
- Suppose **k bits** are used to hold the address of a memory location:

Size of the **memory** in **bytes** is given by:  $2^k$   
where k is the number of bits used to hold a memory address.  
E.g., for a **16-bit** address, **size** of the memory is  $2^{16} = 65536$  bytes

What is the size of the memory for a 24-bit address?



## Memory Addresses

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□ For example,  
a 24-bit address generates an address  
space of  $2^{24}$  (16,777,216) locations

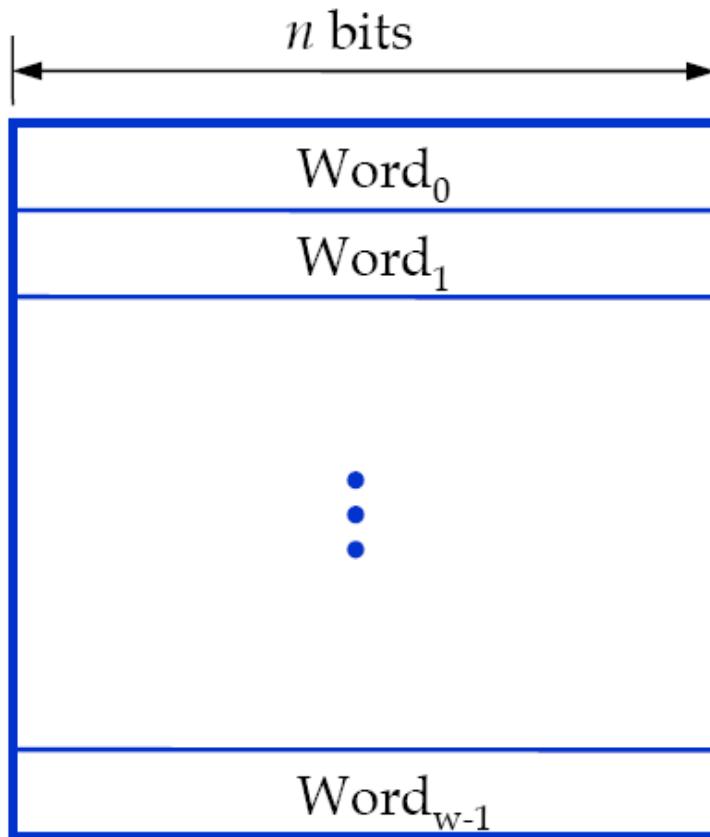
□ Terminology

- ◆  $2^{10}$ : 1K (kilo)
- ◆  $2^{20}$ : 1M (mega)
- ◆  $2^{30}$ : 1G (giga)
- ◆  $2^{40}$ : 1T (tera)

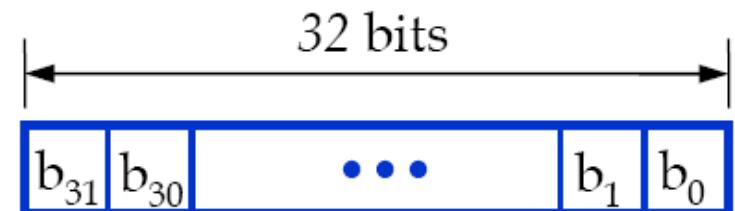


## Memory Words

Memory words



A signed integer

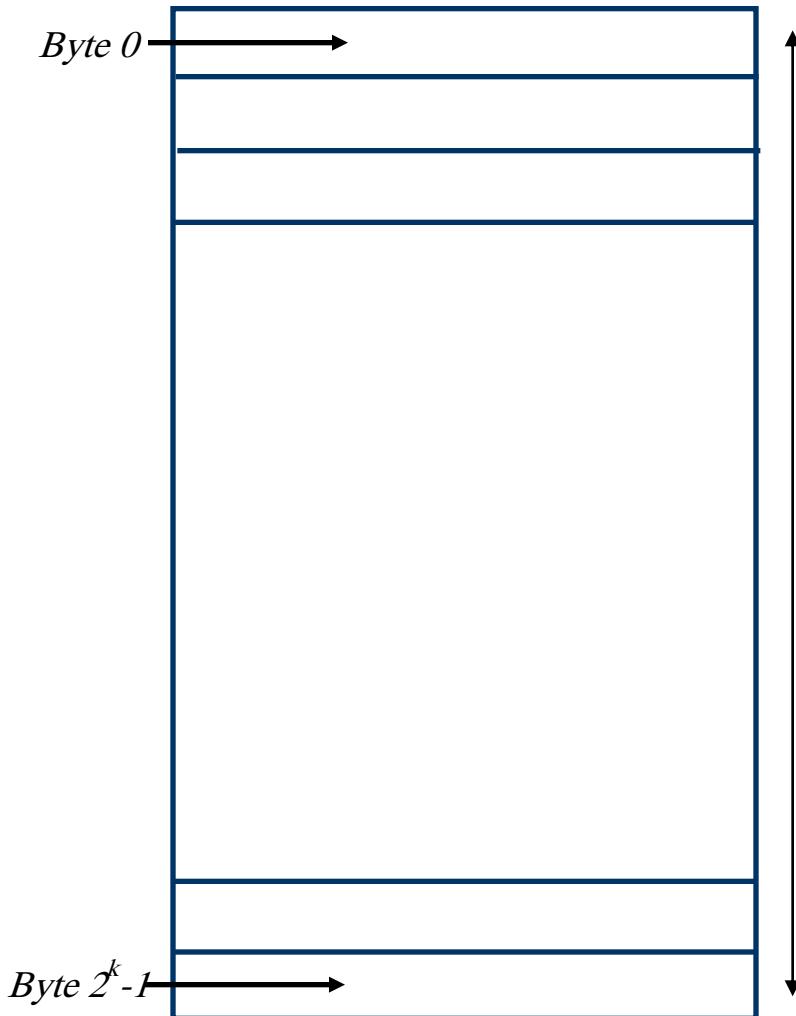


Four characters





## Memory organization (contd..)



- Memory is viewed as a sequence of bytes.
- Address of the first byte is 0
- Address of the last byte is  $2^k - 1$ , where k is the number of bits used to hold memory address
- E.g. when k = 16,  
Address of the first byte is 0  
Address of the last byte is 65535
- E.g. when k = 2,  
Address of the first byte is ?  
Address of the last byte is ?



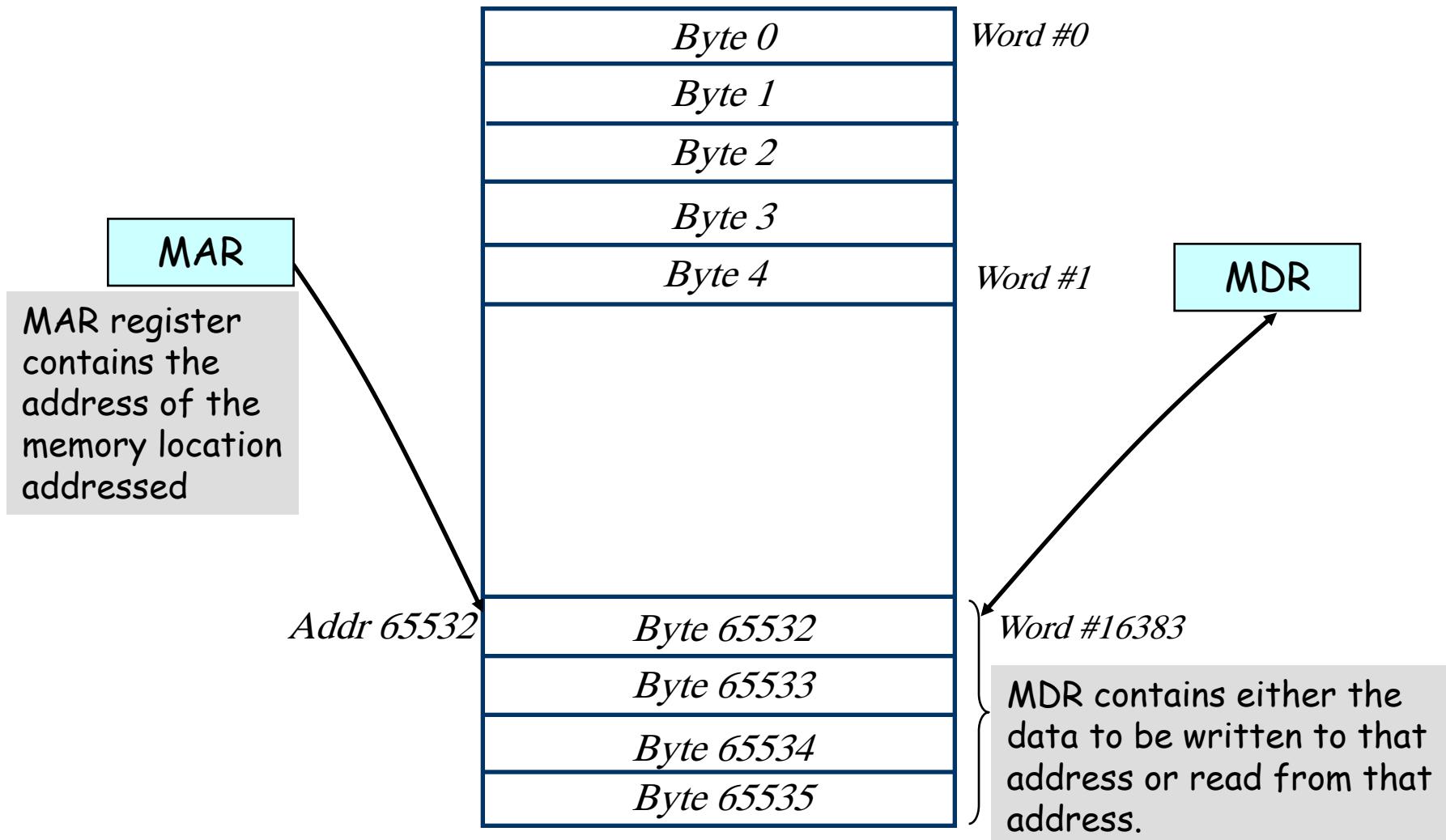
## Memory organization (contd..)

Word #0	Byte 0
	Byte 1
	Byte 2
	Byte 3
Word #1	Byte 4
Word #?	Byte 65532
	Byte 65533
	Byte 65534
	Byte 65535

Consider a memory organization:  
16-bit memory addresses  
**Size of the memory is ?**  
Word length is 4 bytes  
Number of words = Memory size(bytes) = ?  
Word length(bytes)  
Word #0 starts at Byte #0.  
Word #1 starts at Byte #4.  
**Last word (Word #?) starts at Byte#?**



## Memory organization (contd..)





# Byte addresses assignment

Word address	Byte address			
0	0	1	2	3
4	4	5	6	7
			•	
			•	
			•	
$2^k - 4$	$2^k - 4$	$2^k - 3$	$2^k - 2$	$2^k - 1$

**(a) Big-endian assignment**

Byte address			
0	3	2	1 0
4	7	6	5 4
			•
			•
			•
$2^k - 4$	$2^k - 1$	$2^k - 2$	$2^k - 3$

**(b) Little-endian assignment**

- Big-endian assignment: Lower byte addresses are used for the most significant bytes.
- Little-endian assignment: Lower byte addresses are used for the least significant bytes.



## Memory operations

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### □ Memory read or load:

- ◆ Place **address** of the memory location to be read from into **MAR**.
- ◆ Issue a **Memory\_read** command to the memory.
- ◆ **Data** read from the memory is **placed** into **MDR** automatically (by control logic).

### □ Memory write or store:

- ◆ Place **address** of the memory location to be written to into **MAR**.
- ◆ Place **data** to be written into **MDR**.
- ◆ Issue **Memory\_write** command to the memory.
- ◆ **Data** in **MDR** is **written** to the **memory** automatically (by control logic).



## Instruction types

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- Computer instructions must be capable of performing 4 types of operations.
- Data transfer/movement between memory and processor registers.
  - ◆ E.g., memory **read**, memory **write**
- Arithmetic and logic operations:
  - ◆ E.g., addition, subtraction, comparison between two numbers.
- Program sequencing and flow of control:
  - ◆ **Branch** instructions
- Input/output transfers to transfer data to and from the real world.



## Instruction types (contd..)

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- Examples of different types of instructions in assembly language notation.
- Data transfers between processor and memory.
  - ◆ *Move A, B* ( $B = A$ ).
  - ◆ *Move A, R1* ( $R1 = A$ ).
- Arithmetic and logic operation:
  - ◆ *Add A, B, C* ( $C = A + B$ )
- Sequencing(Branching):
  - ◆ *Jump Label1* (Jump to the subroutine which starts at Label).
- Input/output data transfer:
  - ◆ *Input PORT, R5* (Read from i/o port "PORT" to register R5).
  - ◆ *Output R1, PORT*. (write into i/o port "PORT" from register R1).



## Instructions

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### □ Register transfer notation

- ◆ The **contents** of a location are denoted by placing **square brackets** around the name of the location
- ◆ For example,  **$R1 \leftarrow [LOC]$**  means that the contents of memory location LOC are transferred into processor register R1
- ◆ As another example,  **$R3 \leftarrow [R1] + [R2]$**  means that adds the contents of registers R1 and R2, and then places their sum into register R3



## Specifying operands in instructions

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- Operands are the data operated upon by the instructions.
- Recall that operands may have to be fetched from a memory location to execute an operation.
  - ◆ Memory locations have addresses using which they can be accessed.
- Operands may also be stored in the general purpose registers.
  - ◆ Intermediate value of some computation which will be required immediately for subsequent computations.
  - ◆ Registers also have addresses.
- Specifying the operands on which the instruction is to operate involves specifying the addresses of the operands.
  - ◆ Address can be of a memory location or a register.



## Source and destination operands

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- Operation may be specified as:
  - ◆ *Operation source1, source2, destination*
- An operand is called a **source** operand if:
  - ◆ It appears **on the right-hand side** of an expression
    - E.g., *Add A, B, C (C = A + B)*
      - *A* and *B* are source operands.
- An operand is called a **destination** operand if:
  - ◆ It appears **on the left-hand side** of an expression.
    - E.g., *Add A, B, C (C = A + B)*
      - *C* is a destination operand.



## Source and destination operands (contd..)

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- In case of some instructions, the same **operand** serves as both the **source** and the **destination**.
  - ◆ Same operand appears on the right and left side of an expression.
    - E.g. *Add A, B (B = A + B)*
    - B is both the source and the destination operand.
- Another classification of instructions is based on the number of operand addresses in the instruction.



## Instruction types

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- Instructions can also be classified based on the **number of operand addresses** they include.
  - ◆ 3, 2, 1, 0 operand addresses.
- 3-address instructions are almost always instructions that implement binary operations.
  - ◆ E.g. *Add A, B, C (C = A + B)*
  - ◆ k bits are used to specify the address of a memory location, then **3-address instructions need 3\*k bits** to specify the operand addresses.
  - ◆ 3-address instructions, where operand addresses are memory locations are too big to fit in one word.



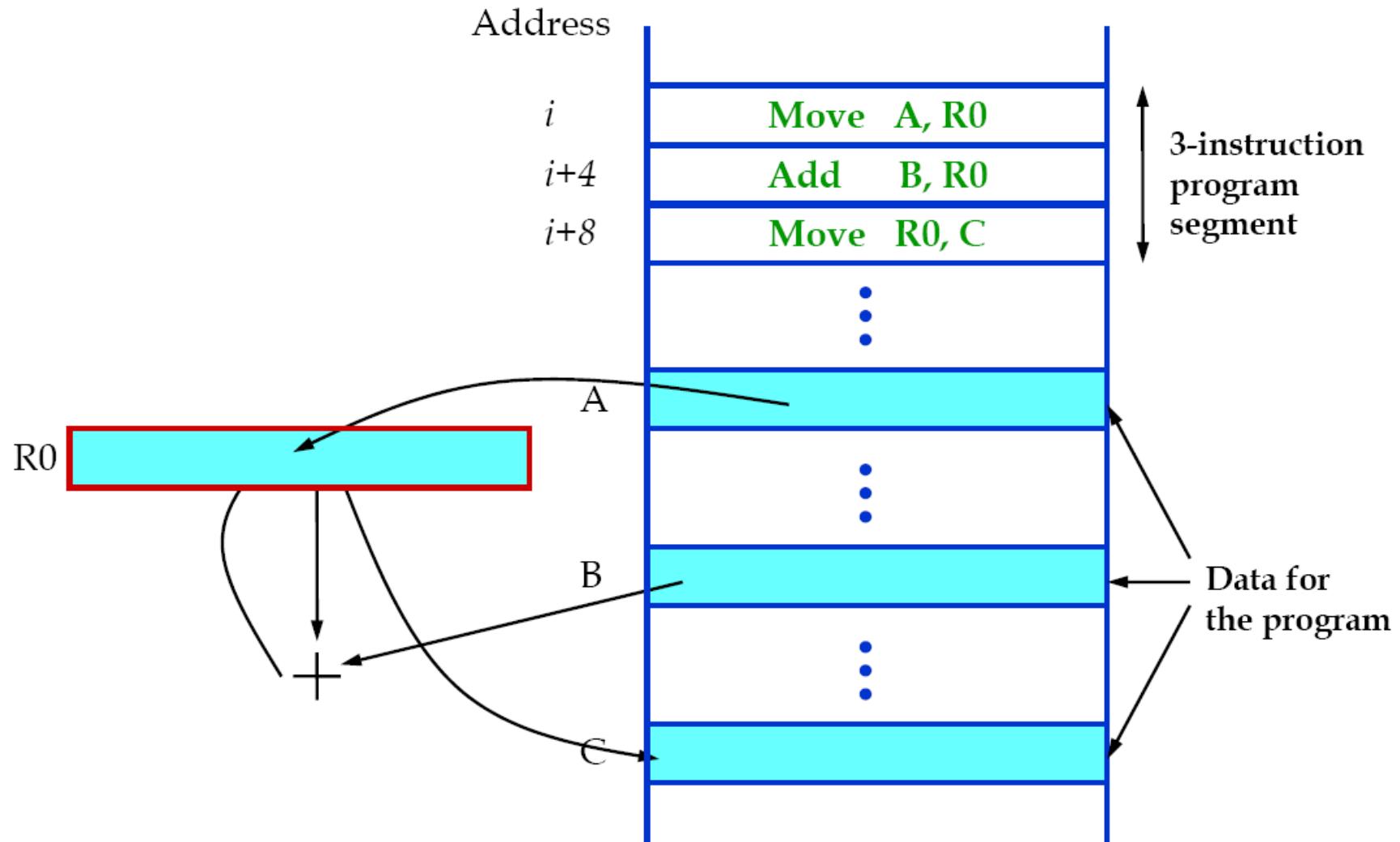
## Instruction types (contd..)

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- 2-address instructions one operand serves as a source and destination:
  - ◆ E.g. *Add A, B (B = A + B)*
  - ◆ 2-address instructions need  $2^*k$  bits to specify an instruction.
  - ◆ This may also be too big to fit into a word.
- 2-address instructions, where at least one operand is a processor register:
  - ◆ E.g. *Add A, R1 (R1 = A + R1)*
- 1-address instructions require only one operand.
  - ◆ E.g. *Clear A (A = 0)*
- 0-address instructions do not operate on operands.
  - ◆ E.g. *Halt (Halt the computer)*
- *How are addresses of operands specified in the instructions?*



## A Program for $C \leftarrow [A] + [B]$



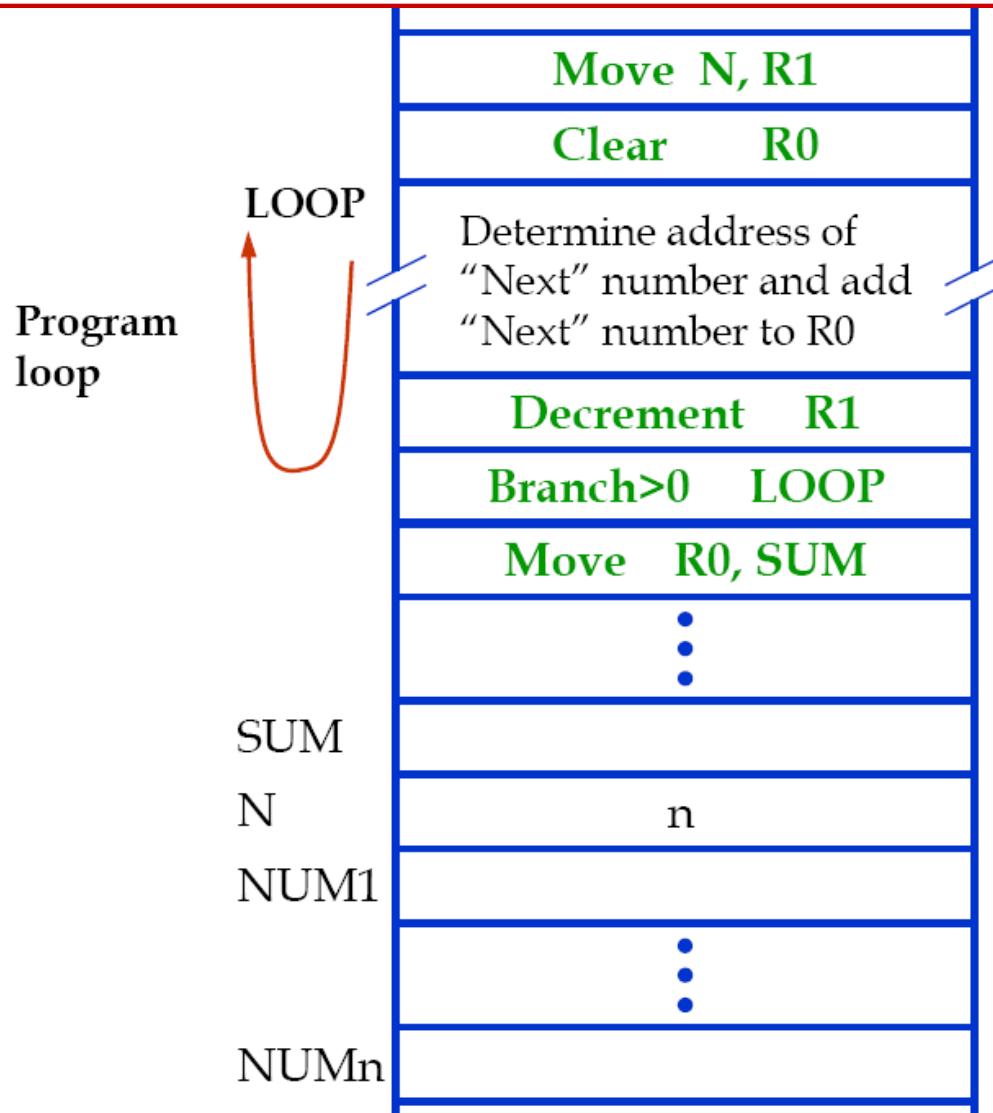


## Straight-Line Sequencing

$i$	Move NUM1, R0
$i+4$	Add NUM2, R0
$i+8$	Add NUM3, R0
	⋮
$i+4n-4$	Add NUM $n$ , R0
$i+4n$	Move R0, SUM
	⋮
SUM	
NUM1	
NUM2	
	⋮
NUM $n$	



# Branching





## Condition Codes

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- The processor keeps track of information about the results of various operations for use by subsequent conditional branch instructions.
- This is accomplished by recording required information in individual bits, often called *condition code flags*



## Condition Codes

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### □ Four commonly used **flags** are

- ◆ **N (negative)**: set to 1 if the results is negative; otherwise, cleared to 0
- ◆ **Z (zero)**: set to 1 if the result is 0; otherwise, cleared to 0
- ◆ **V (overflow)**: set to 1 if arithmetic overflow occurs; otherwise, cleared to 0
- ◆ **C (carry)**: set to 1 if a carry-out results from the operation otherwise, cleared to 0

□ **N** and **Z** flags caused by an **arithmetic** or a **logic** operation,

□ **V** and **C** flags caused by an **arithmetic** operation

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## Addressing Modes

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- A **high-level language** enables the programmer to use **constants**, **local and global variables**, **pointers**, and **arrays**
- When translating a **high-level** language program into **assembly** language, the compiler must be able to implement these **constructs** using the facilities in the **instruction set** of the computer
- *The different ways in which the location of an operand is specified in an instruction are referred to as addressing modes*



# Generic Addressing Modes

Name	Assembler syntax	Addressing function
Immediate	#Value	Operand=Value
Register	Ri	EA=Ri
Absolute (Direct)	LOC	EA=LOC
Indirect	(Ri)	EA=[Ri]
	(LOC)	EA=[LOC]
Index	X(Ri)	EA=[Ri]+X
Base with index	(Ri, Rj)	EA=[Ri]+[Rj]
Base with index and offset	X(Ri, Rj)	EA=[Ri]+[Rj]+X
Relative	X(PC)	EA=[PC]+X
Autoincrement	(Ri)+	EA=[Ri]; Increment Ri
Autodecrement	-(Ri)	Decrement Ri; EA=[Ri]



## Addressing modes

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- Different ways in which the address of an operand is specified in an instruction is referred to as addressing modes.
- Register mode
  - ◆ Operand is the contents of a processor register.
  - ◆ Address of the register (its **Name**) is given in the instruction.
  - ◆ E.g. *Clear R1* or *Move R1, R2*
- Absolute mode
  - ◆ Operand is in a memory location.
  - ◆ **Address** of the memory location is given **explicitly** in the instruction.
  - ◆ E.g. *Clear A* or *Move LOC, R2*
  - ◆ Also called as “**Direct mode**” in some assembly languages
- Register and absolute modes can be used to represent **variables**



## Addressing modes (contd..)

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- Immediate mode
  - ◆ Operand is given explicitly in the instruction.
  - ◆ E.g. *Move #200, R0*
  - ◆ Can be used to represent *constants*.
- Register, Absolute and Immediate modes contained either the address of the operand or the operand itself.
- Some instructions provide information from which the memory address of the operand can be determined
  - ◆ That is, they provide the "Effective Address" of the operand.
  - ◆ They do not provide the **operand** or the **address** of the operand explicitly.
- *Different ways in which "Effective Address" of the operand can be generated.*



## Indirection and Pointers

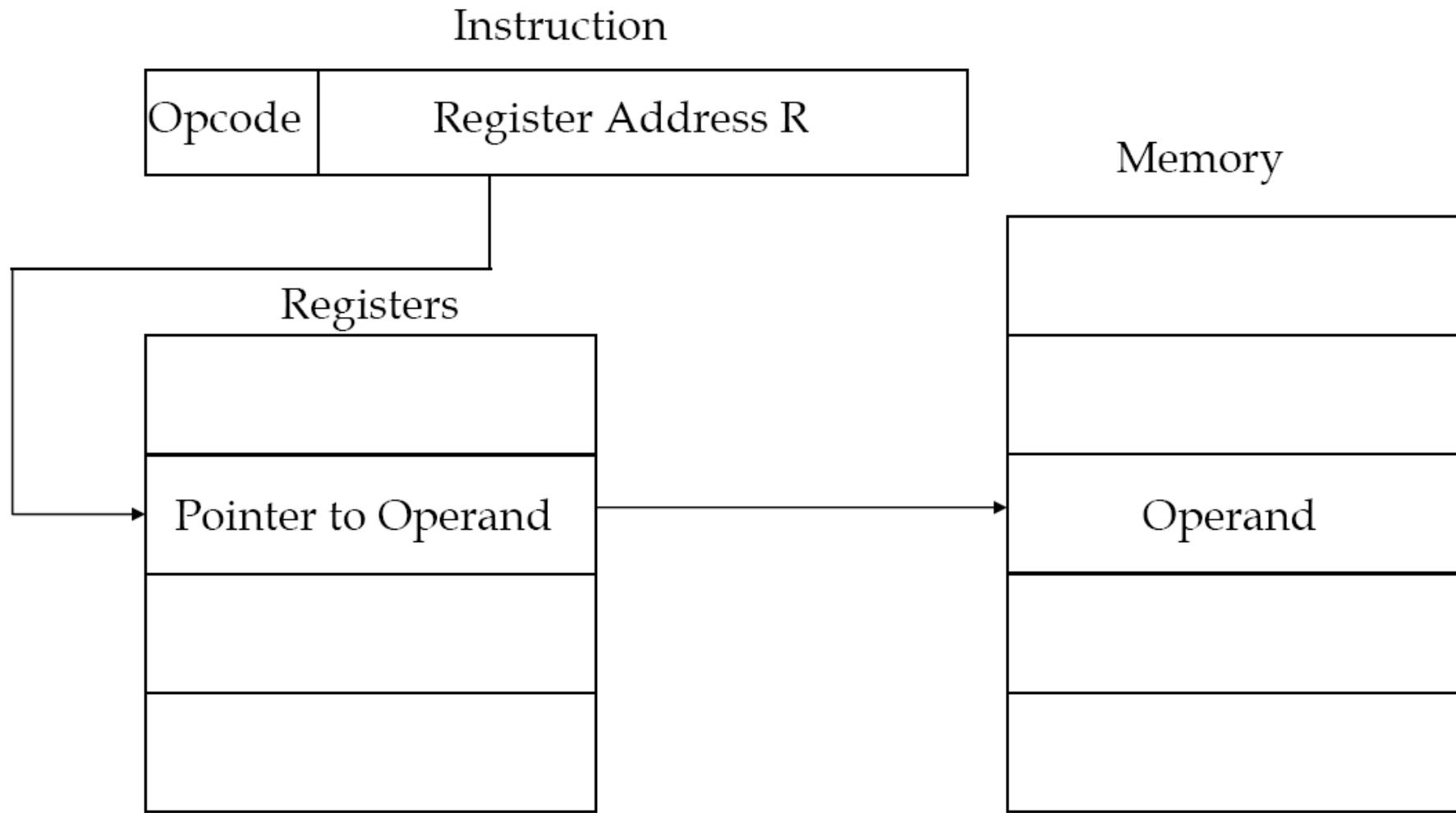
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- Indirect mode: the effective address of the operand is the contents of a register or memory location whose address appears in the instruction
- Indirection is denoted by placing the name of the register or the memory address given in the instruction in parentheses
- The register or memory location that contains the address of an operand is called a pointer

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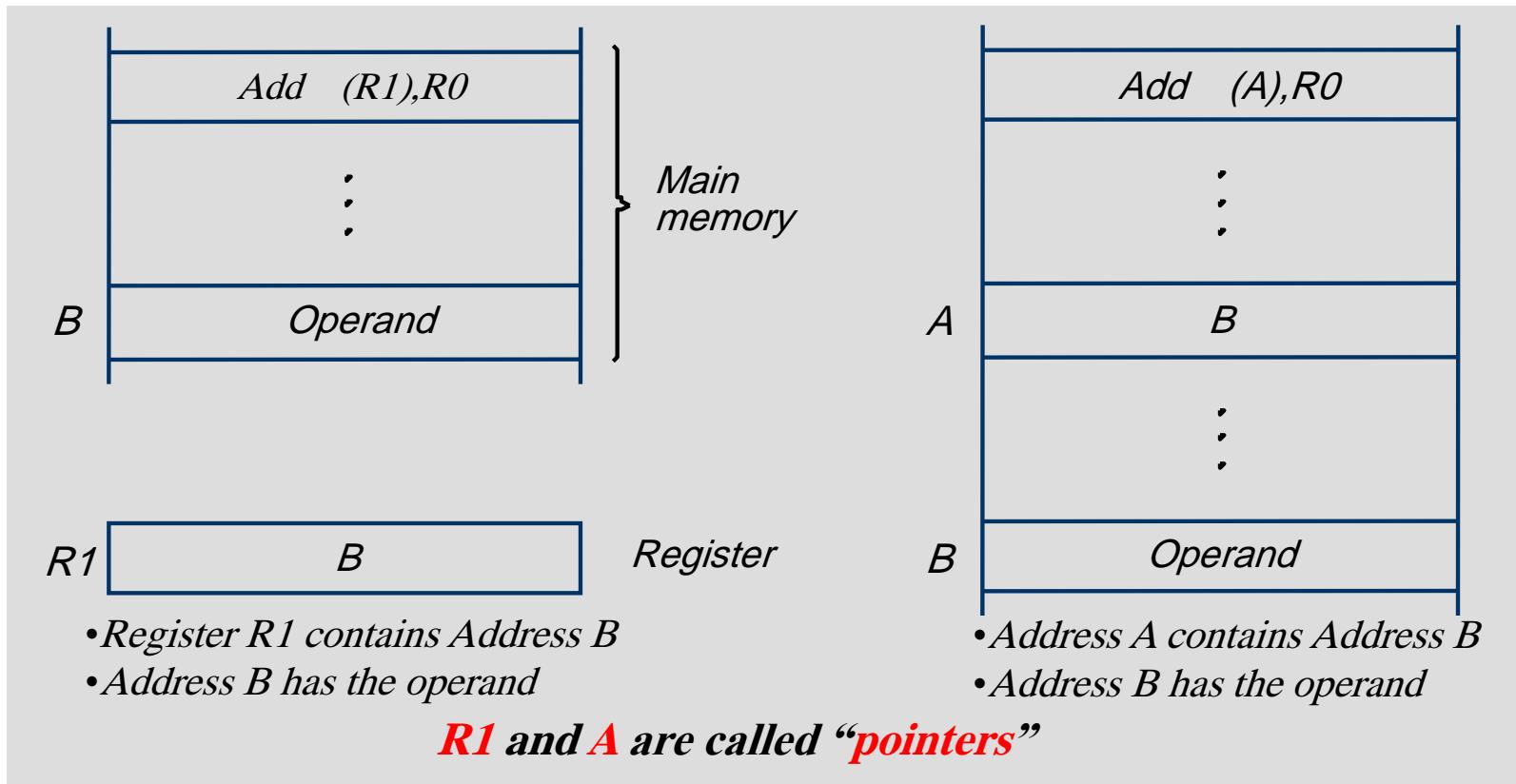
# Register Indirect Addressing Diagram





## Addressing modes (contd..)

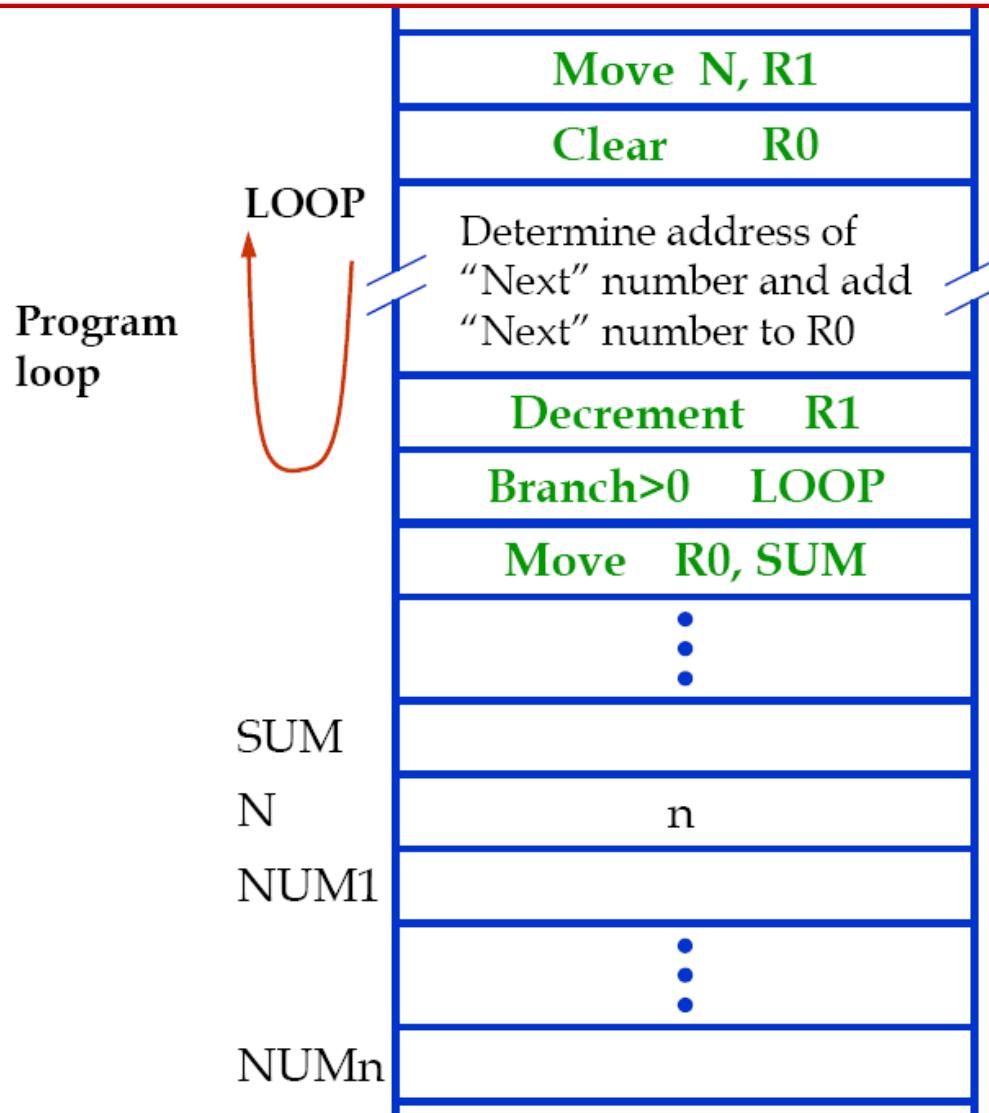
Effective Address of the operand is the contents of a register or a memory location whose address appears in the instruction.



This is called as “Indirect Mode”



# Using Indirect Addressing in a Program



# ◆ Using Indirect Addressing in a Program

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Address	Contents
	Move N, R1
	Move #NUM1, R2
	Clear R0
→ LOOP	Add (R2), R0
	Add #4, R2
	Decrement R1
	Branch>0 LOOP
	Move R0, SUM

The table illustrates a program using indirect addressing. The first four rows show the initialization of registers R1 and R2 with values N and #NUM1 respectively, and the clearing of R0. The subsequent five rows define a loop starting at address 'LOOP'. Inside the loop, the value at the current value of R2 is added to R0, and R2 is then incremented by 4. After this, R1 is decremented. If R1 is greater than 0, the program loops back to the start of the loop. Finally, the program moves the sum (R0) to R1. A brace on the right side of the table groups the first four rows under the label 'Initialization'.



## Indexing and Arrays

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- **Index mode**: the effective address of the operand is generated by adding a constant value to the contents of a register
  - ◆ The register used may be either a special register provided for this purpose, or, more commonly, it may be any one of a set of general purpose registers in the processor.
  - ◆ It is referred to as an *index register*



## Indexing and Arrays

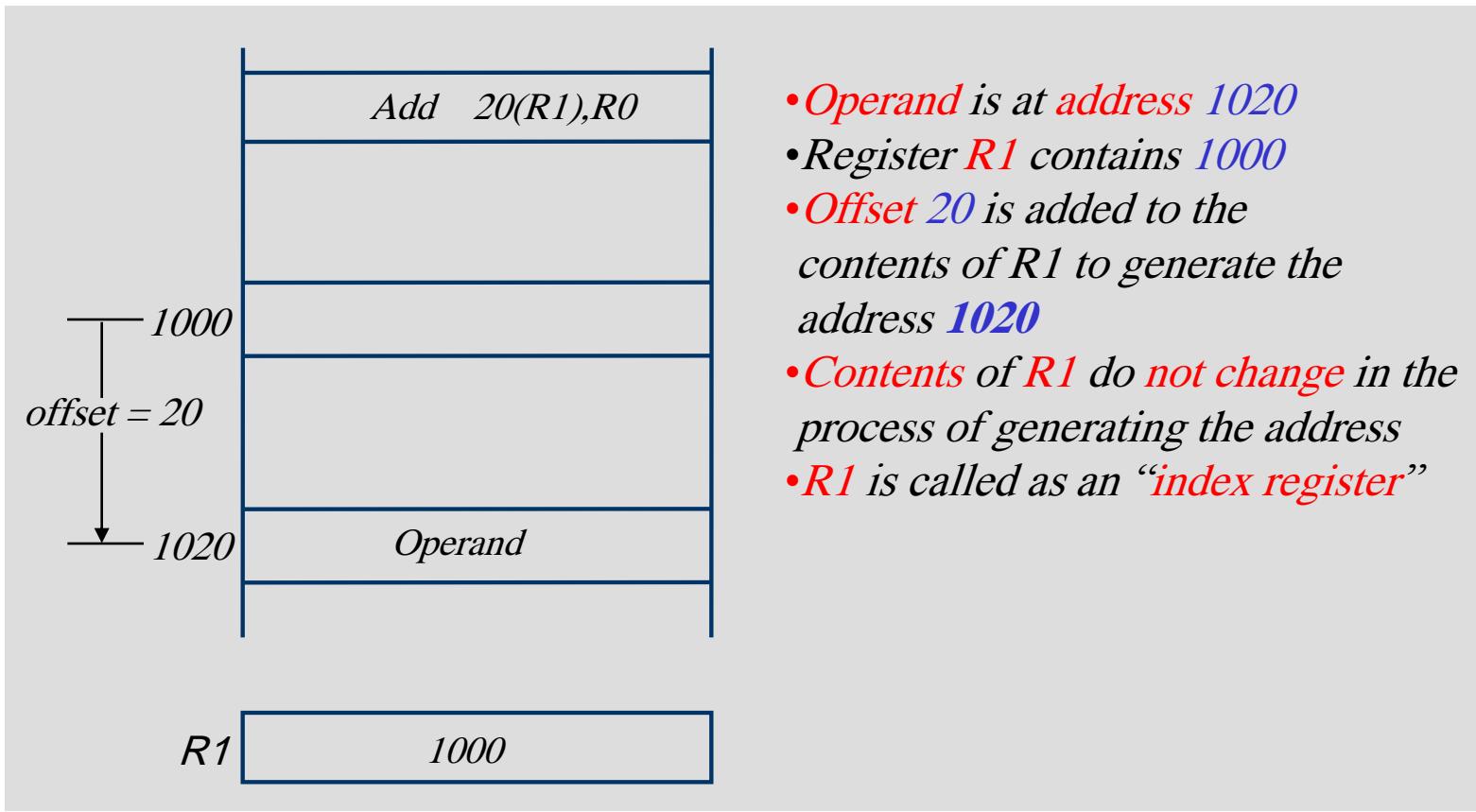
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- ◆ The **index mode** is useful in dealing with **lists** and **arrays**
- ◆ We denote the Index mode symbolically as **X(Ri)**, where **X** denotes the **constant** value contained in the instruction and **Ri** is the name of the **register** involved.
- ◆ The **effective address** of the operand is given by **EA=X+(Ri)**.
- ◆ The **contents** of the **index register** are **not changed** in the process of generating the effective address



## Addressing modes (contd..)

Effective Address of the operand is generated by adding a constant value to the contents of the register



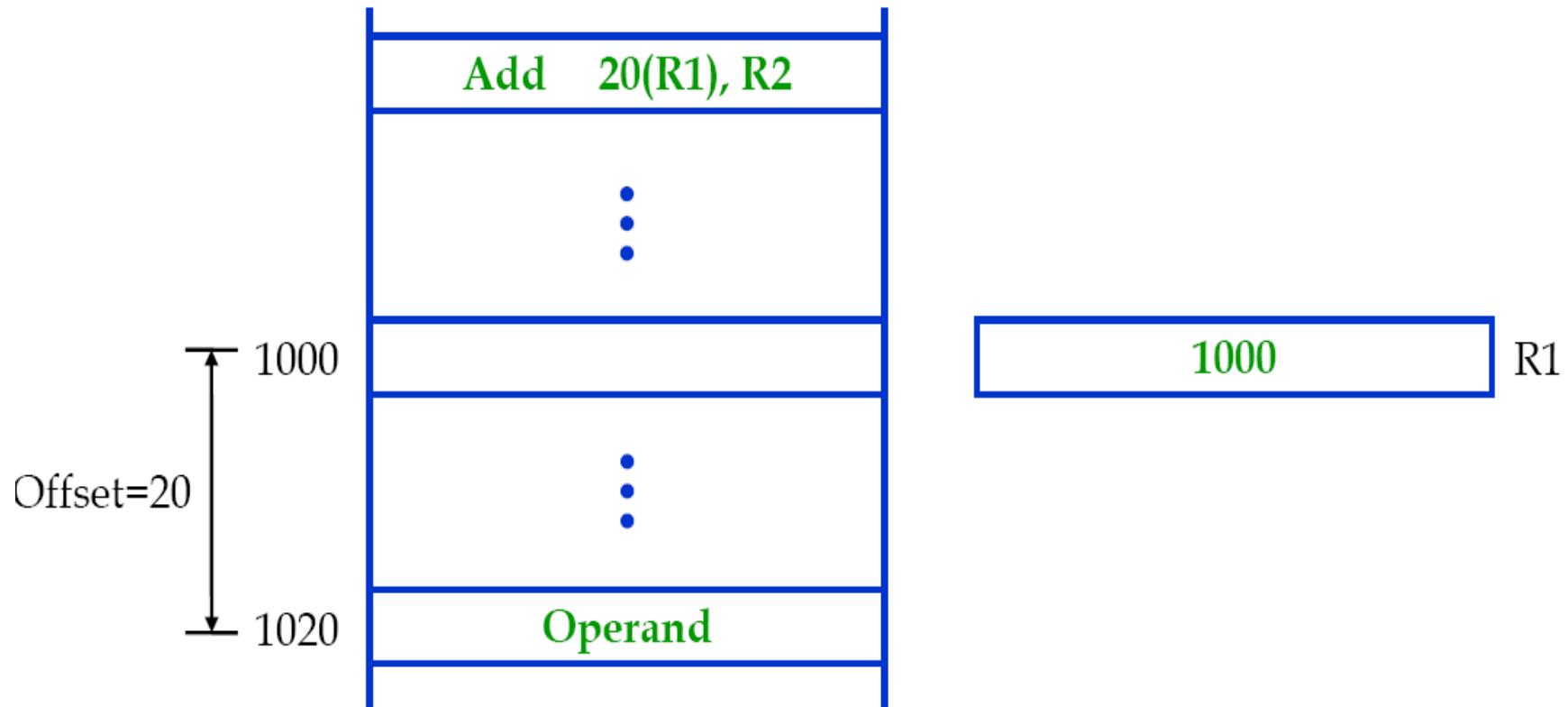
This is the “Indexing Mode”



## Indexed Addressing

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Offset is given as a constant

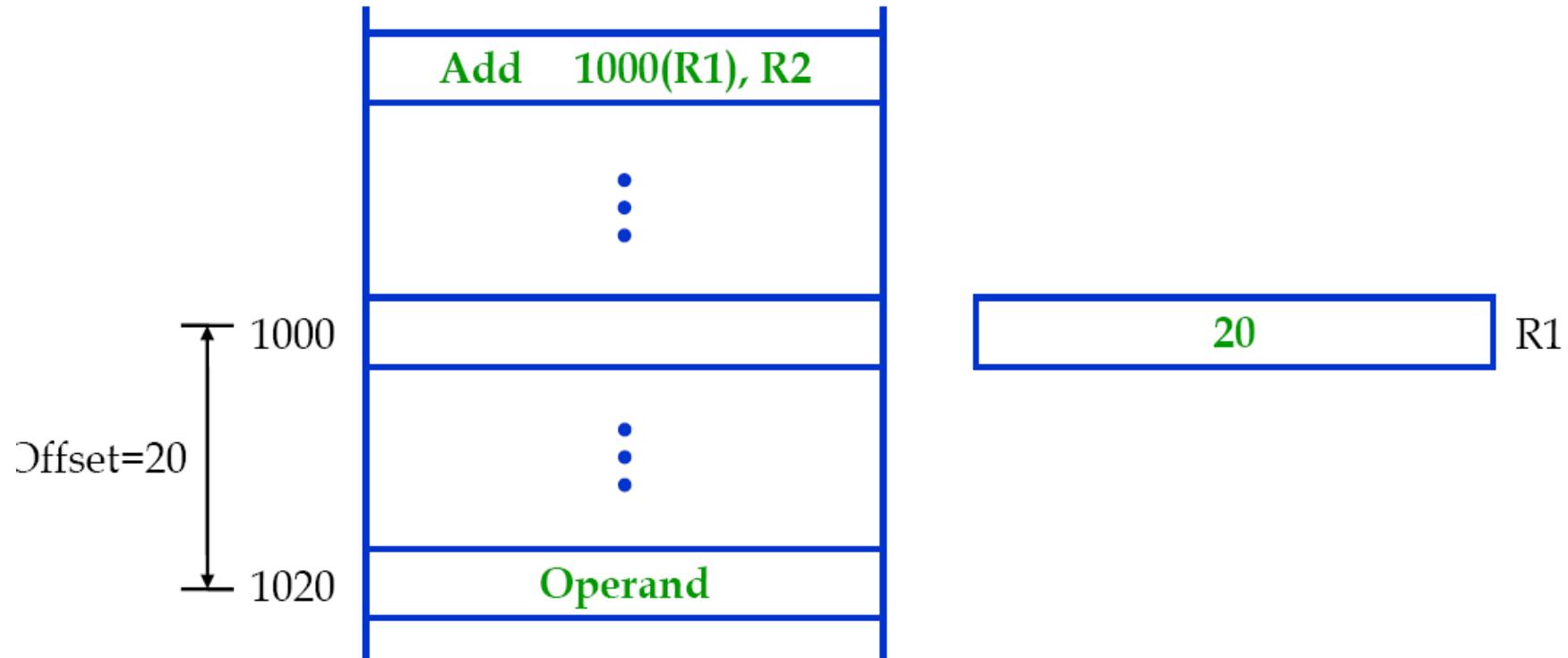




## Indexed Addressing

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Offset is in the index register





# An Example for Indexed Addressing

N	<i>n</i>
LIST	Student ID
LIST+4	Test 1
LIST+8	Test 2
LIST+12	Test 3
LIST+16	Student ID
	Test 1
	Test 2
	Test 3
	⋮

Move	#LIST, R0
Clear	R1
Clear	R2
Clear	R3
Move	N, R4
LOOP	Add 4(R0), R1
	Add 8(R0), R2
	Add 12(R0), R3
	Add #16, R0
Decrement	R4
Branch>0	LOOP
Move	R1, SUM1
Move	R2, SUM2
Move	R3, SUM3



# Variations of Indexed Addressing Mode

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- A **second register** may be used to contain the **offset X**, in which case we can write the Index mode as  $(R_i, R_j)$ 
  - ◆ The **effective address** is the **sum** of the contents of registers  $R_i$  and  $R_j$
  - ◆ The **second register** is usually called the **base register**
  - ◆ This mode implements a **two-dimensional array**
- Another version of the Index mode use **two registers** plus a **constant**, which can be denoted as  $X(R_i, R_j)$ 
  - ◆ The **effective address** is the **sum** of the **constant X** and the contents of registers  $R_i$  and  $R_j$
  - ◆ This mode implements a **three-dimensional array**

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## Addressing Modes (contd..) Relative mode

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- Effective Address of the operand is generated by adding a constant value to the contents of the Program Counter (PC).
- Variation of the Indexing Mode, where the index register is the PC instead of a general purpose register.
- When the instruction is being executed, the PC holds the address of the next instruction in the program.
- Useful for specifying target addresses in branch instructions.
- Addressed location is “relative” to the PC, this is called “Relative Mode”



## Addressing Modes (contd..) Relative mode

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- The Instruction Branch > 0 Loop
- Suppose that the **loop** starts at address 1000, and the **branch** instruction at address 1012.
- The **PC** value now is 1016.
- To branch to location Loop (1000), the **offset** value is  $1000 - 1016 = -16$
- When the **assembler** processes such instruction, it **computes** the required **offset** value, and generates the corresponding **machine instruction** using the **addressing mode**:  
 $-16(PC)$



## Addressing Modes (contd..)

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- Autoincrement mode:
  - ◆ Effective address of the operand is the contents of a register specified in the instruction.
  - ◆ After accessing the operand, the contents of this register are automatically incremented to point to the next consecutive memory location.
  - ◆  $(R1) +$
- Autodecrement mode
  - ◆ The contents of a register specified in the instruction are decremented. Then, these contents are used as the effective address of the operand.
  - ◆  $-(R1)$
- Autoincrement and Autodecrement modes are useful for implementing "Last-In-First-Out" data structures.



## Addressing modes (contd..)

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- Implicitly the increment and decrement amounts are 1.
  - ◆ This would allow us to access individual bytes in a byte addressable memory.
- Recall that the information is stored and retrieved one word at a time.
  - ◆ In most computers, increment and decrement amounts are equal to the word size in bytes.
- E.g., if the word size is 4 bytes (32 bits):
  - ◆ Autoincrement increments the contents by 4.
  - ◆ Autodecrement decrements the contents by 4.



# An Example of Autoincrement Addressing

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	Move	N, R1
	Move	#NUM1, R2
	Clear	R0
→LOOP	Add	(R2)+, R0
	Decrement	R1
	Branch>0	LOOP
	Move	R0, SUM

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